



1 A Possible Pathway for Rapid Growth of Sulfate during Haze Days in China

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16 **Abstract:** Rapid industrialization and urbanization have caused frequent occurrence of haze
17 in China during wintertime in recent years. The sulfate aerosol is one of the most important
18 components of fine particles (PM_{2.5}) in the atmosphere, contributing significantly to the haze
19 formation. However, the heterogeneous formation mechanism of sulfate remains poorly
20 characterized. Observed filter measurements of PM_{2.5}, sulfate, and iron, and relative humidity
21 in Xi'an, China have been employed to evaluate the mechanism and to develop a
22 parameterization of the sulfate heterogeneous formation involving aerosol water for
23 incorporation into atmospheric chemical transport models. Model simulations with the
24 proposed parameterization can successfully reproduce the observed sulfate rapid growth and
25 diurnal variations in Xi'an and Beijing, China. Reasonable representation of sulfate
26 heterogeneous formation in chemical transport models considerably improves the PM_{2.5}
27 simulations, providing the underlying basis for better understanding the haze formation and
28 supporting the design and implementation of emission control strategies.

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33 **1 Introduction**

34 Sulfate is a main component of aerosols or fine particles ($PM_{2.5}$) in the atmosphere and
35 plays a key role in global climate change. The direct and indirect radiative effects induced by
36 sulfate aerosols have constituted one of the major uncertainties in current assessments of
37 climate change (IPCC, 2013). In addition, deposition of sulfate aerosols exerts deleterious
38 impacts on ecosystems through acidification of soils, lakes, and marshes (e.g., Schindler,
39 1988; Gerhardsson et al., 1994). Sulfate is also an important contributor to the haze formation
40 and substantially reduces the atmospheric visibility during hazy days (e.g., He et al., 2014;
41 Guo et al., 2014).

42 The main source of sulfate in the atmosphere is the oxidation of sulfur dioxide (SO_2),
43 which is directly emitted from fossil fuel combustion, industrial processes, and volcanoes, or
44 generated by oxidation of other sulfur-containing species, such as dimethyl sulfide (DMS).
45 The conversion of SO_2 to sulfate involves various processes, including gas-phase oxidations
46 by hydroxyl radicals (OH) and stabilized criegee intermediates (sCI) (Mauldin III et al.,
47 2012), aqueous reactions in cloud or fog droplets, and heterogeneous reactions associated
48 with aerosols (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006).

49 Model studies have been performed to investigate the formation of sulfate aerosols on
50 global or regional scales (Barrie et al., 2001). Previous global model results, considering the
51 contribution of SO_2 gas-phase oxidation and aqueous reactions in cloud or fog droplets driven
52 by ozone (O_3) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), have suggested that SO_2 mixing ratios are
53 generally overestimated while sulfate concentrations tend to be underestimated, indicating
54 that the two SO_2 oxidation pathways still cannot close the gap between field observations and
55 modeling studies (Kasibhatla et al., 1997; Laskin et al., 2003). Incorporation of aqueous SO_2
56 oxidation by oxygen catalyzed by transition metal ions in models has improved sulfate
57 simulations compared to measurements (Jacob and Hoffmann, 1983; Jacob et al., 1984, 1989;



58 Pandis and Seinfeld, 1992; Alexander et al., 2009), and recent studies have further shown the
59 enhanced role of transition metal ions catalysis during in-cloud oxidation of SO₂ (Harris et al.,
60 2013). However, models still underestimate SO₂ oxidation in winter source regions due to
61 lack of cloud or fog or a missing oxidation mechanism (Feichter et al., 1996; Kasibhatla et al.,
62 1997; Barrie et al., 2001). Therefore, heterogeneous conversion of SO₂ to sulfate associated
63 with aerosols provides a possible pathway for improving the sulfate simulations in chemical
64 transport models (CTMs) (Kasibhatla et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2015).

65 Many experimental studies have been conducted to investigate the heterogeneous
66 reactions of SO₂ on various model oxides and mineral dust, but the underlying sulfate
67 formation mechanism is still not comprehensively understood. Generally, the complicated
68 sulfate heterogeneous formation from SO₂ is parameterized as a first-order irreversible uptake
69 by aerosols in CTMs, with a reactive uptake coefficient ranging from 10⁻⁴ to 0.1 and also
70 heavily depending on relative humidity in the atmosphere (Wang et al., 2014). It is still
71 imperative to develop a ubiquitous parameterization of the SO₂ heterogeneous reaction to
72 reasonably represent sulfate formation in CTMs.

73 In recent years, China has experienced frequently severe and persistent haze pollutions
74 caused by elevated PM_{2.5} concentrations, and field measurements have shown that sulfate
75 aerosols are one of the most important species in PM_{2.5} (He et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2016).
76 Reasonable representation of sulfate aerosols provides underlying basis for PM_{2.5} simulations.
77 Laboratory experiments, field measurements, and model simulations have significantly
78 advanced our understanding of SO₂ heterogeneous reactions in the atmosphere, providing a
79 good opportunity to develop a parameterization to more reasonably represent the sulfate
80 formation in CTMs. In this study, a parameterization for sulfate formation from SO₂
81 heterogeneous reactions has been developed based on the daily filter measurements in Xi'an
82 since 2003, and verified using the Weather Research and Forecast model with Chemistry



83 (WRF-CHEM) in Xi'an and Beijing, China.

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85 **2 Model and Methodology**

86 **2.1 WRF-CHEM Model**

87 In the present study, a specific version of the WRF-CHEM model (Grell et al., 2005) is
88 utilized to assess the proposed heterogeneous sulfate parameterization, which is developed by
89 Li et al. (2010, 2011a, b, 2012) at the Molina Center for Energy and the Environment. A new
90 flexible gas phase chemical module is incorporated into the model to consider different
91 chemical mechanisms, and the CMAQ/Models3 aerosol module developed by US EPA is
92 adopted for aerosol simulations. Chemical species surface dry depositions are parameterized
93 following Wesely (1989), and the wet deposition is calculated using the method in the
94 CMAQ. The photolysis rates are calculated using the FTUV in which the aerosol and cloud
95 effects on photolysis are included (Li et al., 2005; Li et al., 2011a).

96 The ISORROPIA Version 1.7 (Nenes et al., 1998) is used to predict inorganic aerosols
97 in the WRF-CHEM model. A non-traditional SOA module is employed to calculate
98 secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation, including the volatility basis-set (VBS)
99 modeling method in which primary organic components are assumed to be semi-volatile and
100 photochemically reactive and are distributed in logarithmically spaced volatility bins. The
101 SOA contributions from glyoxal and methylglyoxal are also considered as a first-order
102 irreversible uptake by aerosol particles and cloud droplets in the model. Detailed information
103 can be found in Li et al. (2011b).

104 Two persistent heavy haze pollution episodes are selected in the present study: (1)
105 December 16 to 27, 2013 in the Guanzhong basin (GZB); and (2) January 13 to 21, 2014 in
106 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) (Figure 1). Detailed model configurations and aerosol species
107 observation sites are given in Table 1.



1108 2.2 Statistical Methods for Comparisons

1109 The mean bias (*MB*) and the index of agreement (*IOA*) are used to evaluate the
1110 performance of the WRF-CHEM model in simulating gas-phase species and aerosols against
1111 measurements. The *IOA* varies from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating perfect agreement of the
1112 prediction with the observation.

$$1113 \quad MB = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)$$

$$1114 \quad IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|P_i - \bar{P}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2}$$

1115 where P_i and O_i are the calculated and observed pollutant concentrations, respectively. N is
1116 the total number of the predictions used for comparisons, and \bar{P} and \bar{O} represents the average
1117 of the prediction and observation, respectively.

1118 2.3 Pollutants Measurements

1119 The hourly near-surface NO₂, SO₂, and PM_{2.5} mass concentrations in GZB and BTH
1120 are released by the China's Ministry of Environmental Protection (China MEP) and can be
1121 downloaded from the website <http://www.aqistudy.cn/>. The daily filter measurements of
1122 aerosol species have been performed since 2003 at the Institute of Earth Environment,
1123 Chinese Academy of Sciences (hereafter referred to as IEECAS, 34.23°N, 108.88°E) in Xi'an,
1124 China (Figure 1a). The sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and organic aerosols are measured by the
1125 Aerodyne High Resolution Time-of-Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) with
1126 a novel PM_{2.5} lens from 13 December 2013 to 6 January 2014 at IEECAS site in Xi'an and
1127 from 9 to 26 January 2014 at the Institute of Remote Sensing and Digital Earth, Chinese
1128 Academy of Sciences (40.00°N, 116.38°E) in Beijing (Figure 1b). Detailed information about
1129 the HR-ToF-AMS measurement can be found in Elser et al. (2016).

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131 3 Results and Discussions

132 3.1 Parameterization of SO₂ Heterogeneous Reaction Involving Aerosol Water



133 Figure 2 shows the scatter plot of the wintertime sulfate and PM_{2.5} daily mass
134 concentrations at IEECAS from 2003 to 2010. The wintertime is defined as December of the
135 year to February of the next year. The observed daily PM_{2.5} mass concentrations frequently
136 exceed 150 µg m⁻³ during wintertime, showing that Xi'an has experienced heavy air pollution.
137 The sulfate aerosols constitute about 15.7% of the PM_{2.5} mass concentration on average, and
138 the occurrence frequency with the daily sulfate mass concentration exceeding 50 µg m⁻³ is
139 around 25.7%.

140 The observed high level of sulfate aerosols is hardly interpreted using SO₂ gas-phase
141 oxidations by OH and sCl due to the low O₃ level in the winter. The insolation is weak during
142 wintertime in North China, unfavorable for photochemical activities. The O₃ formation is
143 slow and the observed O₃ concentrations are very low, particularly during haze episodes. The
144 real-time hourly measurements of O₃ and PM_{2.5} concentrations during 2013 and 2015
145 wintertime are analyzed as follows in GZB (5 cities, 39 sites, Figure 1a), which are released
146 by China MEP since 2013. Values of the hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations ([PM_{2.5}]) are first
147 subdivided into 20 bins with the interval of 25 µg m⁻³. O₃ concentrations ([O₃]) in the 5 cities
148 as [PM_{2.5}] are assembled, and an average of [O₃] in each bin are calculated (Nakajima et al.,
149 2001; Kawamoto et al., 2006). As shown in Figure 3, when [PM_{2.5}] increase from 10 to 75 µg
150 m⁻³, [O₃] significantly decrease from around 41 to 23 µg m⁻³; when [PM_{2.5}] exceed 200 µg m⁻³,
151 [O₃] fluctuate between 18 and 21 µg m⁻³. The average [O₃] in the 5 cities during the 2013
152 and 2015 wintertime are 27 µg m⁻³ (about 13.5 ppbv). Considering the determining role of O₃
153 in the formation of OH and sCl in the atmosphere, the very low level of [O₃] during
154 wintertime significantly reduces the efficiency of the sulfate formation from SO₂ oxidation
155 by OH and sCl.

156 Humid conditions have been observed to facilitate the sulfate formation in the
157 atmosphere (e.g., Sun et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2015). Figure 4 presents the scatter plot of the



158 wintertime sulfate at IEECAS and the relative humidity (RH) at an adjacent meteorological
159 station from 2003 to 2010. The observed sulfate displays a positive correlation with the RH
160 with the correlation coefficient of 0.70, indicating that the aerosol water induced by the
161 aerosol wet growth might play an important role in the sulfate formation. It is worthy to note
162 that since high RH often coincides with stagnation, the concentrations of a lot of pollutants
163 also build up during high RH periods. There are two possible pathways for the sulfate
164 formation: bulk aqueous-phase oxidation of SO₂ in aerosol water and heterogeneous reaction
165 of SO₂ on aerosol surfaces involving aerosol water.

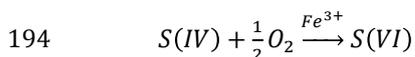
166 The heterogeneous reaction of SO₂ on dust surfaces has been investigated
167 comprehensively, but the sulfate formation mechanism is still not completely understood.
168 Possible mechanisms have been proposed that mineral dust and NO₂ enhance the conversion
169 of SO₂ to sulfate (He et al., 2014; Xie et al., 2015; Xue et al., 2016). Size-segregated particle
170 samples in Beijing have shown that a considerable amount of sulfate is distributed in the
171 coarse mode with particle diameters ranging from 2.1 to 9 μm, but sulfate peak
172 concentrations still occur in the fine mode with particle diameters ranging from 0.43 to 1.1
173 μm (Tian et al., 2016). Oxidation of sulfite by NO₂ in aerosol water has also been proposed to
174 contribute considerably to the sulfate production when NH₃ concentrations are sufficiently
175 high (Pandis and Seinfeld, 1989; Xie et al., 2015).

176 Laboratory or field studies have suggested that O₃ or Fe³⁺ can oxidize sulfite to sulfate.
177 Considering the low [O₃] during wintertime (Figure 3), the oxidation of sulfite by O₃ cannot
178 constitute the main source of the wintertime sulfate. Mineral dust and coal combustion in
179 China could provide sufficient iron. Measurements have indicated that mineral dust accounts
180 for about 10% of PM_{2.5} in Beijing (He et al., 2014). Observations at an urban site in Ji'nan,
181 China have also shown enhanced iron concentrations during haze episodes, ranging from 0.7
182 to 5.5 μg m⁻³, which are primarily emitted from steel smelting and coal combustion (Wang et



183 al., 2012). Figure 5 shows the scatter plot of the wintertime $PM_{2.5}$ and iron at IEECAS site
 184 from 2003 to 2010. The iron mass concentration generally increases with $[PM_{2.5}]$, varying
 185 from 0.1 to $10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but does not correlate well with the $[PM_{2.5}]$ with the correlation
 186 coefficient of 0.34, showing considerable background contributions. We assume that 1% of
 187 iron in Xi'an is dissolved in aerosol water and 1% of dissolved iron is in the Fe^{3+} oxidation
 188 state (Alexander et al., 2009). When the aerosol water concentration varies from 100 to 1000
 189 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, the Fe^{3+} concentrations in Xi'an are between 0.18 and $180 \mu\text{M}$, providing favorable
 190 conditions for the oxidation of adsorbed sulfite (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006).

191 We propose here a SO_2 heterogeneous reaction parameterization in which the SO_2
 192 oxidation in aerosol water by O_2 catalyzed by Fe^{3+} is limited by mass transfer resistances in
 193 the gas-phase and the gas-particle interface.



195 When the solution pH is between 5.0 and 7.0, the oxidation reaction is second order in
 196 dissolved iron and first order in $S(IV)$ and can be expressed as follows (Seinfeld and Pandis,
 197 2006):

$$198 \quad -\frac{d[S(IV)]}{dt} = 1 \times 10^{-3} [S(IV)] \quad 5.0 < pH < 6.0$$

$$199 \quad -\frac{d[S(IV)]}{dt} = 1 \times 10^{-4} [S(IV)] \quad pH \sim 7.0$$

200 where $[S(IV)]$ is the sulfite ($S(IV)$) concentration. The measured SO_2 mass accommodation
 201 coefficient on aqueous surfaces is around 0.1 (Worsnop et al., 1989). Due to sufficient NH_3
 202 and presence of mineral dust in the atmosphere in North China, the calculated pH in aerosol
 203 water is between 5.0 and 7.0 (Cao et al., 2013). The SO_2 uptake coefficient on aerosol water
 204 surface is estimated to be about $10^{-4} \sim 10^{-5}$ if the sulfite oxidation is catalyzed by Fe^{3+} . The
 205 sulfate heterogeneous formation from SO_2 is therefore parameterized as a first-order
 206 irreversible uptake by aerosols, with a reactive uptake coefficient of 0.5×10^{-4} , assuming that



207 there is enough alkalinity to maintain the high iron-catalyzed reaction rate:

$$208 \quad \frac{d[SO_2]}{dt} = -\left(\frac{1}{4}\gamma_{SO_2}v_{SO_2}A_w\right)[SO_2]$$

209 where $[SO_2]$ is the SO_2 concentration, A_w is the aerosol water surface area, γ_{SO_2} is the SO_2
210 reactive uptake coefficient, and v_{SO_2} is the SO_2 thermal velocity. Considering that O_3 and
211 NO_2 also play a considerable role in the sulfite oxidation when pH is high (Pandis and
212 Seinfeld, 1989), future studies are needed to consider the O_3 and NO_2 contribution to the
213 sulfate formation.

214 A box model is devised to interpret the rapid growth of sulfate observed at IEECAS
215 site during 2013 wintertime in Xi'an. In this model, the proposed heterogeneous reaction of
216 SO_2 involving aerosol water (hereafter referred to as $HRSO_2$) parameterization is included
217 and ISORROPIA (Version 1.7) is used to simulate sulfate, nitrate, ammonium aerosols, and
218 aerosol water. In addition, inorganic aerosols are represented by a two-moment modal
219 approach with a lognormal size distribution. A severe haze episode occurred from December
220 16 to 25, 2013 in GZB, with the average observed $[PM_{2.5}]$ exceeding $400 \mu g m^{-3}$ during the
221 period from December 23 to 25, 2013. The HR-ToF-AMS measured sulfate concentrations
222 reaching about $250 \mu g m^{-3}$ in the morning on December 23, and particularly, the observed
223 sulfate concentration increased from $132 \mu g m^{-3}$ at 07:30 BJT to $240 \mu g m^{-3}$ at 09:30 BJT.
224 The box model is utilized to simulate the rapid sulfate growth from 07:30 to 09:30 BJT,
225 constrained by the observed temperature, SO_2 , nitrate, and ammonium (Table 2). There was
226 no RH observation at the IEECAS site; the observed RH at adjacent meteorological stations
227 ranged from 93% to 99% during the time period. In addition, the atmosphere was calm and
228 stable during the simulation period due to the control of a high pressure system over GZB, so
229 the horizontal transport is not considered. Various RHs from 93% to 99% are used to
230 calculate the sulfate growth in the box model. Figure 6 shows the calculated and observed
231 sulfate concentrations from 07:30 to 09:30 on December 23, 2013. The RH significantly



232 influences the sulfate formation and the sulfate concentrations increase nonlinearly with the
233 RH. When the RH is 93%, the sulfate concentration is increased by $22.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ after 2-hour
234 integration, whereas the enhanced sulfate concentration reaches $216.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ when the RH is
235 99%. The simulated sulfate concentrations are best fit for the observation when the RH is
236 98%. It is worth noting that, when RH is high (i.e., exceeding 95% or so), there is always the
237 possibility of the presence of fog. Studies have demonstrated that for every observed sulfate
238 peak in the 1980s in Los Angeles, there is fog present (Pandis and Seinfeld, 1989; Pandis et
239 al., 1992). Hence, the box model simulations with the RH ranging from 93% to 99% strongly
240 suggest that there was at least some patchy fog in the area, which would provide sufficient
241 water for the rapid iron-catalyzed reaction. Further studies need to be performed to
242 investigate the possible contributions of the patchy fog on the sulfate formation.

243

244 3.2 Sulfate Simulations in GZB and BTH

245 The proposed HRSO_2 parameterization is further incorporated into the WRF-CHEM
246 model to simulate sulfate aerosols. Two simulations are performed for GZB and BTH
247 respectively, including the base case (hereafter referred to as B-case) without the HRSO_2
248 parameterization and the enhanced oxidation case (hereafter referred to as E-case) with the
249 HRSO_2 parameterization. In Figures 7 and 8, we present the spatial distributions of calculated
250 and observed near-surface $[\text{PM}_{2.5}]$ at 00:00 BJT in the E-case on selected six days
251 representing the haze development in GZB and BTH, respectively, along with the simulated
252 wind fields. In general, the predicted $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ spatial patterns agree well with the observations
253 at the ambient monitoring sites in GZB and BTH. The model reproduces well the high $[\text{PM}_{2.5}]$
254 in GZB, although it tends to underestimate the observation in the west of GZB. Due to the
255 specific topography, when the northeast winds are prevalent in GZB, pollutants tend to
256 accumulate, and simulated and observed $[\text{PM}_{2.5}]$ can be up to $500 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. When the north



257 winds are intensified on 26 December 2013, the pollutants commence to be transported
258 outside of GZB. In BTH, simulated weak winds cause severe $PM_{2.5}$ pollutions, with $[PM_{2.5}]$
259 frequently exceeding $250 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at most of areas of BTH, which is consistent with the
260 observations over monitoring sites. Hence, in general, the model reasonably well reproduces
261 the haze formation in GZB and BTH.

262 In the present study, ISORROPIA (Version 1.7) is employed to predict the
263 thermodynamic equilibrium between the sulfate-nitrate-ammonium-water aerosols and their
264 gas phase precursors H_2SO_4 - HNO_3 - NH_3 -water vapor. SO_2 and NO_2 are the precursors of
265 H_2SO_4 and HNO_3 , so it is imperative to evaluate the SO_2 and NO_2 simulations using the
266 measurements to more reasonably calculate inorganic aerosols concentrations.

267 Figures 9 and 10 show the temporal profiles of observed and simulated near-surface
268 $[NO_2]$ and $[SO_2]$ averaged over monitoring sites in GZB from December 16 to 27, 2013 and
269 in BTH from January 13 to 21, 2014, respectively. The model performs well in simulating the
270 $[NO_2]$ temporal variations compared with observations in GZB and BTH, both with the *IOA*
271 of 0.91 in the E-case. The difference of the simulated $[NO_2]$ in the B-case and E-case is minor,
272 showing that the impact of the $HRSO_2$ parameterization on NO_2 simulations is not significant
273 in GZB and BTH. Although the model replicates the temporal variations of $[SO_2]$ compared
274 to the measurements in GZB and NCP in the E-case with *IOAs* of around 0.80, the model
275 biases still exist. The model generally underestimates $[SO_2]$ in GZB and BTH, with *MBs* of -
276 $3.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and $-0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. One of the possible reasons for SO_2 simulation biases is that large
277 amounts of SO_2 are emitted from point sources, such as power plants or agglomerated
278 industrial zones, and the transport of SO_2 from point sources is more sensitive to the wind
279 field simulation uncertainties (Bei et al., 2012). The $HRSO_2$ parameterization generally
280 improves the SO_2 simulations by accelerating SO_2 conversions to sulfate, decreasing the *MB*
281 from $11.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the B-case to $-3.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the E-case in GZB and $5.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the B-



282 case to $-0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the E-case in BTH. Overall, the model performs well in simulating the
283 NO_2 and SO_2 temporal variations against the measurements in GZB and BTH in the E-case.

284 Figures 11 and 12 display the simulated and observed inorganic aerosol variations in
285 Xi'an from December 16 to 27, 2013 and in Beijing from January 13 to 21, 2014,
286 respectively. In Xi'an, the observed sulfate mass concentrations range from 50 to $250 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
287 constituting the second most important $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ component during the episode. The HRSO_2
288 parameterization substantially improves the sulfate simulations in the E-case compared to
289 those in the B-case against the measurements. In the B-case, the sulfate concentrations are
290 remarkably underestimated, with a *MB* of $-72.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Table 3). However, in the E-case, the
291 WRF-CHEM model generally yields the observed sulfate variations during the 11-day
292 episode, with a *MB* of $-17.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and an *IOA* of 0.89. It is worth noting that the model has
293 difficulties in reproducing the long-range transport sulfate contribution, and considerably
294 underestimates the observed sulfate mass concentration on December 17. The model also
295 cannot replicate the slow transition of synoptic situations on December 21, and the plume
296 formed in Xi'an is pushed to the northeast of Xi'an, causing underestimation of sulfate
297 aerosols (Bei et al., 2016).

298 In Beijing, the model also reproduces the observed sulfate variations reasonably well
299 during the 7-day episode in the E-case, with a *MB* of $-0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and an *IOA* of 0.88 (Table
300 3), but cannot adequately predict the observed sulfate peaks. The high level of sulfate
301 aerosols in Beijing is generally determined by the transport from surrounding areas,
302 particularly from the regions in the south or east. Uncertainties of the timing, depth, and
303 intensity of the simulated southerly or easterly wind fronts significantly influence the model
304 performance. For example, the early occurrence of the southerly wind fronts causes an
305 overestimation of sulfate aerosols during the daytime on January 15. The model also fails to
306 produce the observed high sulfate mass concentration in the evening during January 17 due to



307 the simulated weak southerly or easterly wind fronts. The improvement of sulfate simulations
308 caused by the HRSO_2 parameterization in Beijing is not as obvious as that in Xi'an due to the
309 very humid conditions in GZB during the simulation period, which facilitate the rapid
310 conversion of SO_2 to sulfate and cause the SO_2 heterogeneous conversion to be the dominant
311 sulfate source.

312 Although the *IOA* for nitrate aerosols is 0.83, the nitrate underestimation is rather large
313 from 17 to 21 December 2013 in Xi'an in the E-case, caused by the model failure in
314 simulating the long-range transport of pollutants from the east outside of GZB. The nitrate
315 simulations are improved in Beijing compared to those in Xi'an, with a *MB* of $-4.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
316 and an *IOA* of 0.88 in the E-case. The nitrate simulations in the B-case are slightly better than
317 those in the E-case, caused by the underestimation of sulfate aerosols in the B-case, which is
318 favorable for more HNO_3 to exist in the aerosol phase. The model performs well in predicting
319 the ammonium aerosols in Xi'an and Beijing, with *IOAs* of around 0.90 in the E-case. The
320 ammonium simulations in the E-case are improved compared to those in the B-case against
321 the measurement, showing that sulfate aerosols play a more important role in the ammonium
322 aerosol formation. Considering the substantial influence of simulated meteorological fields
323 uncertainties on the aerosol species comparison at a single site (Bei et al., 2012), the HRSO_2
324 parameterization performs reasonably well in simulating the observed inorganic aerosol
325 variations in Xi'an and Beijing in the E-case.

326 Figure 13 presents the observed and simulated diurnal cycles of mass concentrations of
327 NO_2 and SO_2 averaged over GZB and BTH and the sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium aerosols
328 in Xi'an and Beijing during the simulated episodes. The WRF-CHEM model performs well
329 in simulating the NO_2 diurnal cycles compared to measurements over GZB and BTH in the
330 E-case. The model also reasonably reproduces the observed diurnal cycles of SO_2 over GZB,
331 sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium aerosols in Xi'an in the E-case, particularly the sulfate



332 simulations are significantly improved in the E-case compared with the B-case against the
333 measurements. However, the model does not predict well the observed diurnal cycles of
334 sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium aerosols in Beijing, showing the model biases in simulating
335 the south or east wind fronts.

336 As one of the most important components of $PM_{2.5}$, reasonable representation of sulfate
337 heterogeneous formation in CTMs is imperative to $PM_{2.5}$ simulations and predictions. Figure
338 14 presents the temporal profiles of observed and simulated near-surface $[PM_{2.5}]$ averaged
339 over monitoring sites in GZB from December 16 to 27, 2013 and in BTH from January 13 to
340 21, 2014, respectively. Inclusion of the $HRSO_2$ parameterization in the E-case improves the
341 ability of the model to reproduce the $PM_{2.5}$ measurements in GZB and BTH. In GZB, due to
342 very humid conditions which facilitate the heterogeneous sulfate formation during the
343 episode, the simulated $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations are increased by more than $40 \mu g m^{-3}$ in the
344 E-case compared to the B-case, and more consistent with the measurements. The $HRSO_2$
345 parameterization also improves the $PM_{2.5}$ simulations in BTH, reducing the underestimation
346 from around -13.3 to $-5.1 \mu g m^{-3}$. The $HRSO_2$ parameterization enhances considerably the
347 $[PM_{2.5}]$ in GZB (Figure 15), with the average $[PM_{2.5}]$ contribution of about $10 - 50 \mu g m^{-3}$
348 from December 16 to 27, 2013. The average $[PM_{2.5}]$ contributions of the sulfate
349 heterogeneous formation is around $2 - 30 \mu g m^{-3}$ in BTH (Figure 15) from January 13 to 21,
350 2014, lower than those in GZB.

351 The sulfate aerosol significantly affects nitrate and ammonium formation in the
352 atmosphere due to its stability and the deliberate thermodynamic equilibrium between
353 inorganic aerosols and their precursors. The simulated hourly near-surface sulfate
354 concentrations in E-case during the whole episode are first subdivided into 20 bins with the
355 interval of $5 \mu g m^{-3}$. Inorganic aerosols and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the B-case and E-case as
356 the bin sulfate concentrations in the E-case following the grid cells are assembled



357 respectively, and an average of inorganic aerosols and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in each bin are
358 calculated. Figures 16 and 17 show the impacts of the $HRSO_2$ parameterization on the
359 inorganic aerosols and $PM_{2.5}$ simulations in GZB and NCP, respectively. The heterogeneous
360 sulfate formation determines the sulfate level when the sulfate concentration in the E-case is
361 more than $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with the contribution exceeding 50% in GZB. However, in BTH, the
362 heterogeneous sulfate formation plays a more important role in the sulfate level only when
363 the sulfate concentration in the E-case exceeds $45 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. If the $HRSO_2$ parameterization is
364 not considered, the model generally predicts more nitrate and less ammonium aerosols
365 (Figures 16b-c and 17b-c). In addition, the $[PM_{2.5}]$ contributions of the heterogeneous sulfate
366 formation exceed 5% and 10% when the simulated sulfate concentrations in the E-case are
367 more than $10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and $80 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in GZB respectively (Figure 16d). However, in BTH, the
368 contributions exceed 5% when the simulated sulfate concentrations in the E-case are higher
369 than $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Figure 17d).

370

371 **4 Summary and Conclusions**

372 In the present study, a parameterization of sulfate heterogeneous formation involving
373 aerosol water ($HRSO_2$) is developed based on the daily filter measurements in Xi'an since
374 2003. A SO_2 heterogeneous reaction parameterization has been proposed, in which the SO_2
375 oxidation in aerosol water by O_2 catalyzed by Fe^{3+} is limited by mass transfer resistances in
376 the gas-phase and the gas-particle interface. The sulfate heterogeneous formation from SO_2 is
377 parameterized as a first-order irreversible uptake by aerosol water surfaces, with a reactive
378 uptake coefficient of 0.5×10^{-4} assuming that there is enough alkalinity to maintain the high
379 iron-catalyzed reaction rate. A box model with the $HRSO_2$ parameterization successfully
380 reproduces the observed rapid sulfate formation at IEECAS site in Xi'an.

381 The $HRSO_2$ parameterization is implemented into the WRF-CHEM model to simulate



382 sulfate aerosols. Two persistent heavy haze pollution episodes are simulated with and without
383 the SO₂ heterogeneous reaction: (1) December 16 to 27, 2013 in GZB, and (2) January 13 to
384 21, 2014 in BTH. In general, the model performs reasonably well in simulating the PM_{2.5}
385 distributions, the NO₂ and SO₂ temporal variations compared with observations in GZB and
386 NCP. The HRSO₂ parameterization improves the SO₂ simulations by accelerating SO₂
387 conversions to sulfate aerosols.

388 The HRSO₂ parameterization substantially improves the sulfate simulations compared
389 to the measurements in Xi'an and Beijing, particularly under humid conditions. In Xi'an, the
390 sulfate concentrations are substantially underestimated when the HRSO₂ parameterization is
391 not considered in the simulations. Inclusion of the HRSO₂ parameterization significantly
392 enhances the sulfate formation, and the model generally produces the observed sulfate
393 variations during the 11-day episode. In Beijing, improvement in sulfate simulations with
394 HRSO₂ parameterization is not as obvious as that in Xi'an because of the very humid
395 conditions in GZB during the simulation period. The HRSO₂ parameterization also improves
396 the ammonium simulations in Xi'an and Beijing compared to observations, as well as
397 appreciably improves the PM_{2.5} simulations against the measurements over monitoring sites
398 in GZB and NCP.

399 In summary, reasonable representation of sulfate heterogeneous formation not only
400 improves the PM_{2.5} simulations, but also helps rationally verify the contribution of inorganic
401 aerosols to PM_{2.5}, providing the underlying basis for better understanding the haze formation
402 and supporting the design and implementation of emission control strategies.

403

404 Data availability: The real-time NO₂, SO₂ and PM_{2.5} are accessible for the public on the
405 website <http://106.37.208.233:20035/>. The historic profile of observed ambient pollutants is
406 also available at <http://www.aqistudy.cn/>.



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Figure Captions

- 586 Figure 1 WRF-CHEM simulation domains with topography for (a) the Guanzhong basin and
587 (b) Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei. The black squares represent ambient monitoring sites. The
588 red filled circles in (a) and (b) denote the deployment locations of the HR-ToF-AMS
589 in Xi'an and Beijing, respectively.
- 590 Figure 2 Scatter plot of the observed sulfate with $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations at IEECAS site
591 in Xi'an during the wintertime from 2003 to 2011.
- 592 Figure 3 Average O_3 mass concentrations over monitoring sites in GZB as a function of the
593 $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration during the wintertime from 2013 to 2015.
- 594 Figure 4 Scatter plot of the observed relative humidity with sulfate mass concentrations at
595 IEECAS site in Xi'an during the wintertime from 2003 to 2011.
- 596 Figure 5 Scatter plot of the observed $PM_{2.5}$ with iron mass concentrations at IEECAS site in
597 Xi'an during the wintertime from 2003 to 2011.
- 598 Figure 6 Sulfate growth simulated by the box model with the $HRSO_2$ parameterization under
599 various relative humidity conditions at IEECAS site in Xi'an from 07:30 to 09:30 BJT
600 on December 23, 2013. The black dots denote the HR-ToF-AMS measurement and
601 the solid lines with different colors represent the box model simulations under
602 different relative humidity.
- 603 Figure 7 Pattern comparison of simulated vs. observed near-surface $PM_{2.5}$ at 00:00 BJT
604 during the selected six days in GZB from 16 to 27 December 2013. Colored circles:
605 $PM_{2.5}$ observations; color contour: $PM_{2.5}$ simulations in the E-case; black arrows:
606 simulated surface winds in the E-case.
- 607 Figure 8 Same as Figure 7, but in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014.
- 608 Figure 9 Comparison of measured and predicted diurnal profiles of near-surface hourly (a)
609 NO_2 and (b) SO_2 averaged over all ambient monitoring sites in GZB from 16 to 27
610 December 2013. The black dots correspond to the observations, and the solid red and
611 blue lines are the simulations in the E-case and B-case, respectively.
- 612 Figure 10 Same as Figure 9, but in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014.
- 613 Figure 11 Comparison of measured and simulated diurnal profiles of inorganic aerosols of (a)
614 sulfate, (b) nitrate, and (c) ammonium in Xi'an from 16 to 27 December 2013. The
615 black dots represent the observations, and the solid red and blue lines denote the
616 simulations in the E-case and B-case, respectively.
- 617 Figure 12 Same as Figure 11, but in Beijing from 13 to 21 January 2014.
- 618 Figure 13 Observed and simulated diurnal cycles of mass concentrations of NO_2 and SO_2
619 averaged over GZB and BTH and the sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium aerosols in
620 Xi'an and Beijing during the simulated episodes.
- 621 Figure 14 Comparison of measured and predicted diurnal profiles of near-surface hourly
622 $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration averaged over all ambient monitoring stations (a) in GZB



623 from 16 to 27 December 2013 and (b) in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014. The black
624 dots represent the observations, and the solid red and blue lines are the simulations in
625 the E-case and B-case, respectively.

626 Figure 15 Distribution of the average near-surface $PM_{2.5}$ contribution due to the SO_2
627 heterogeneous reactions in GZB and BTH during the simulated episodes.

628 Figure 16 Average (a) sulfate, (b) nitrate, (c) ammonium, and (d) $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations
629 in GZB during the simulation period as a function of the sulfate mass concentration in
630 the E-case. The red and blue dots represent average mass concentrations in the E-case
631 and B-case, respectively.

632 Figure 17 Same as Figure 16, but in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014.

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 637 Table 1 WRF-CHEM model configurations and observation sites
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Regions	Guanzhong Basin (GZB)	Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH)
Simulation period	December 16 to 27, 2013	January 13 to 21, 2014
Domain size	150 × 150	
Domain center	34.25°N, 109°E	39°N, 117°E
Horizontal resolution	6km × 6km	
Vertical resolution	35 vertical levels with a stretched vertical grid with spacing ranging from 30 m near the surface, to 500 m at 2.5 km and 1 km above 14 km	
Microphysics scheme	WSM 6-class graupel scheme (Hong and Lim, 2006)	
Boundary layer scheme	MYJ TKE scheme (Janjić, 2002)	
Surface layer scheme	MYJ surface scheme (Janjić, 2002)	
Land-surface scheme	Unified Noah land-surface model (Chen and Dudhia, 2001)	
Longwave radiation scheme	Goddard longwave scheme (Chou and Suarez, 2001)	
Shortwave radiation scheme	Goddard shortwave scheme (Chou and Suarez, 1999)	
Meteorological boundary and initial conditions	NCEP 1°×1° reanalysis data	
Chemical initial and boundary conditions	MOZART 6-hour output (Horowitz et al., 2003)	
Anthropogenic emission inventory	Developed by Zhang et al. (2009)	
Biogenic emission inventory	MEGAN model developed by Guenther et al. (2006)	
Aerosol Observation Sites		
City	Xi'an	Beijing
Longitude and latitude	34.23°N, 108.88°E	40.00°N, 116.38°E

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643 Table 2 Box model configurations

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Time (BJT)	07:00 – 08:00	08:00 – 09:00	09:00 – 10:00
Temperature (°C)	-3.7	-3.2	-2.1
SO ₂ concentration (µg m ⁻³)	10.7	10.4	25.5
Nitrate concentration (µg m ⁻³)*	67.6	70.1	69.1
Ammonium concentration (µg m ⁻³)*	65.2	76.0	91.9

645 *The HR-ToF-AMS measures sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium aerosols with a time resolution of 1 minute. The
646 high temporal resolution nitrate and ammonium are used to constrain the box model and the hourly average is
647 presented in the table.

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652 Table 3 Statistical comparisons of simulated and measured sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium
 653 concentrations in Xi'an and Beijing

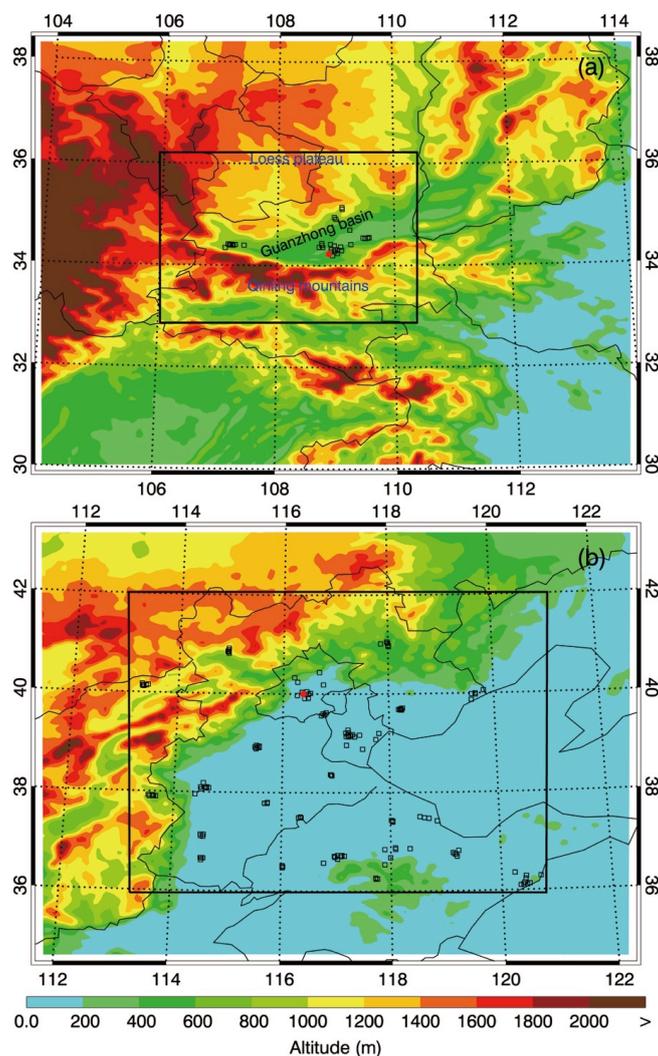
City	Species	E-case		B-case	
		<i>MB</i> ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	<i>IOA</i>	<i>MB</i> ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	<i>IOA</i>
Xi'an	Sulfate	-17.0	0.89	-72.4	0.50
	Nitrate	-13.4	0.83	-6.3	0.86
	Ammonium	-5.1	0.92	-20.1	0.72
Beijing	Sulfate	-0.8	0.88	-8.4	0.65
	Nitrate	-4.2	0.88	-1.9	0.92
	Ammonium	-2.7	0.89	-4.1	0.87

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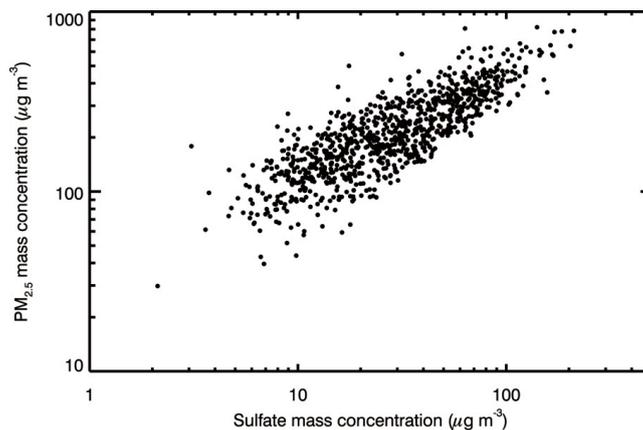
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Figure 1 WRF-CHEM simulation domains with topography for (a) the Guanzhong basin and (b) Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei. The black squares represent ambient monitoring sites. The red filled circles in (a) and (b) denote the deployment locations of the HR-ToF-AMS in Xi'an and Beijing, respectively.



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679 Figure 2 Scatter plot of the observed sulfate with PM_{2.5} mass concentrations at IEECAS site

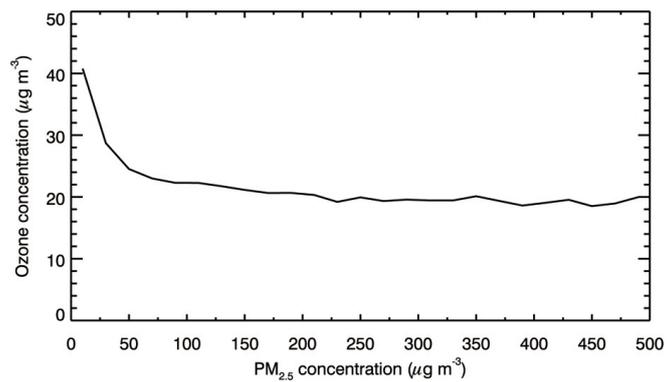
680 in Xi'an during the wintertime from 2003 to 2011.

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687 Figure 3 Average O₃ mass concentrations over monitoring sites in GZB as a function of the

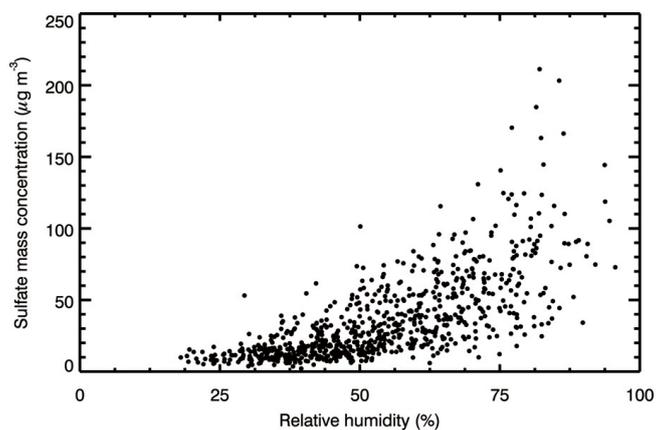
688 PM_{2.5} mass concentration during the wintertime from 2013 to 2015.

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695 Figure 4 Scatter plot of the observed relative humidity with sulfate mass concentrations at

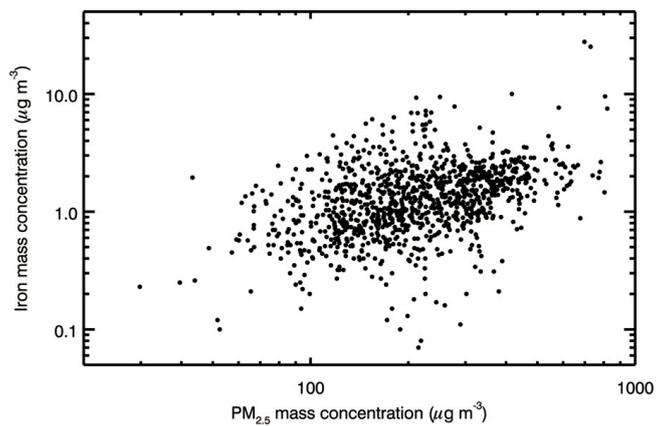
696 IEECAS site in Xi'an during the wintertime from 2003 to 2011.

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703 Figure 5 Scatter plot of the observed PM_{2.5} with iron mass concentrations at IEECAS site in

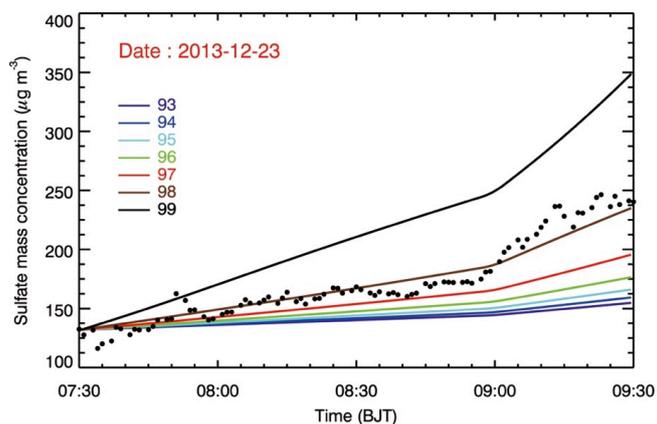
704 Xi'an during the wintertime from 2003 to 2011.

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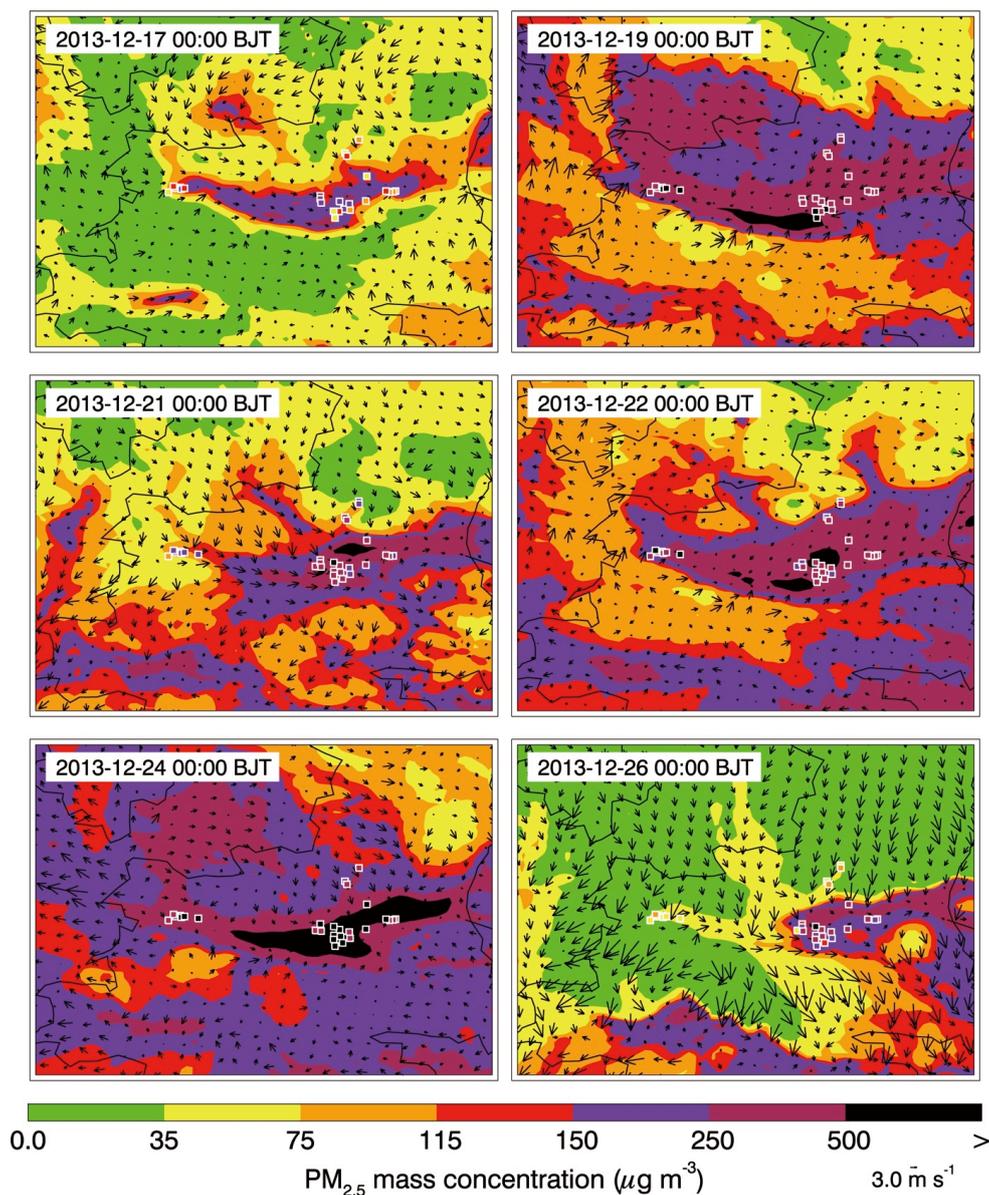
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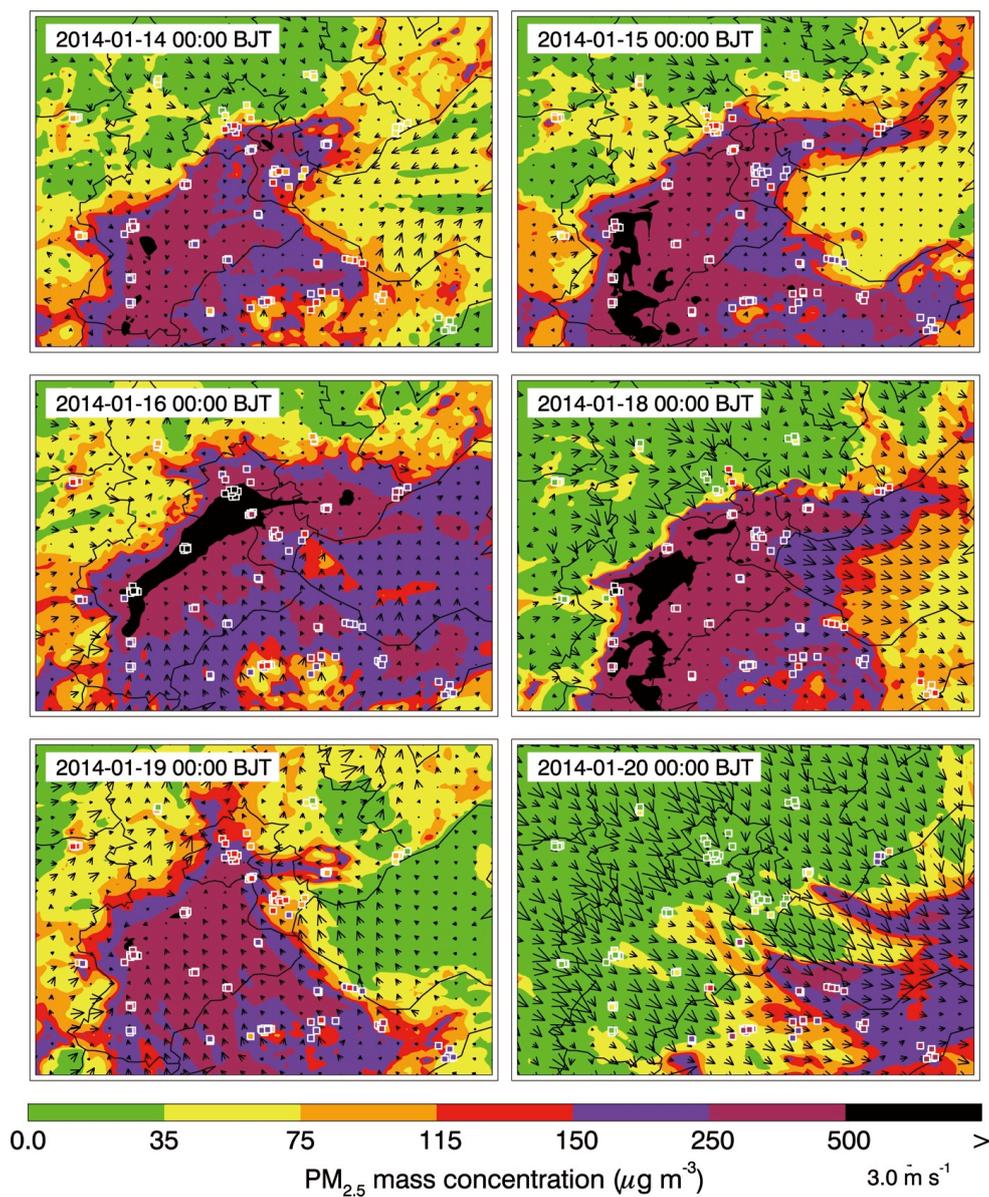
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Figure 6 Sulfate growth simulated by the box model with the HRSO_2 parameterization under various relative humidity at IEECAS site in Xi'an from 07:30 to 09:30 BJT on December 23, 2013. The black dots denote the HR-ToF-AMS measurement and the solid lines with different colors represent the box model simulations under different relative humidity.



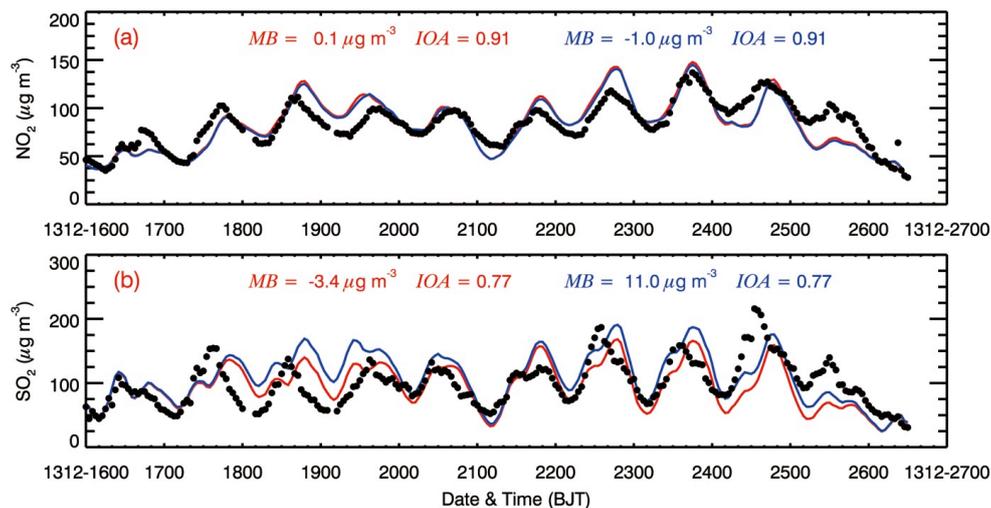
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Figure 7 Pattern comparison of simulated vs. observed near-surface $PM_{2.5}$ at 00:00 BJT on the selected six days in GZB from 16 to 27 December 2013. Colored circles: $PM_{2.5}$ observations; color contour: $PM_{2.5}$ simulations in the E-case; black arrows: simulated surface winds in the E-case.



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Figure 8 Same as Figure 7, but in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014.



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739 Figure 9 Comparison of measured and predicted diurnal profiles of near-surface hourly (a)

740 NO₂ and (b) SO₂ averaged over all ambient monitoring sites in GZB from 16 to 27 December

741 2013. The black dots correspond to the observations, and the solid red and blue lines are the

742 simulations in the E-case and B-case, respectively. The x-axis labels (named date and time)

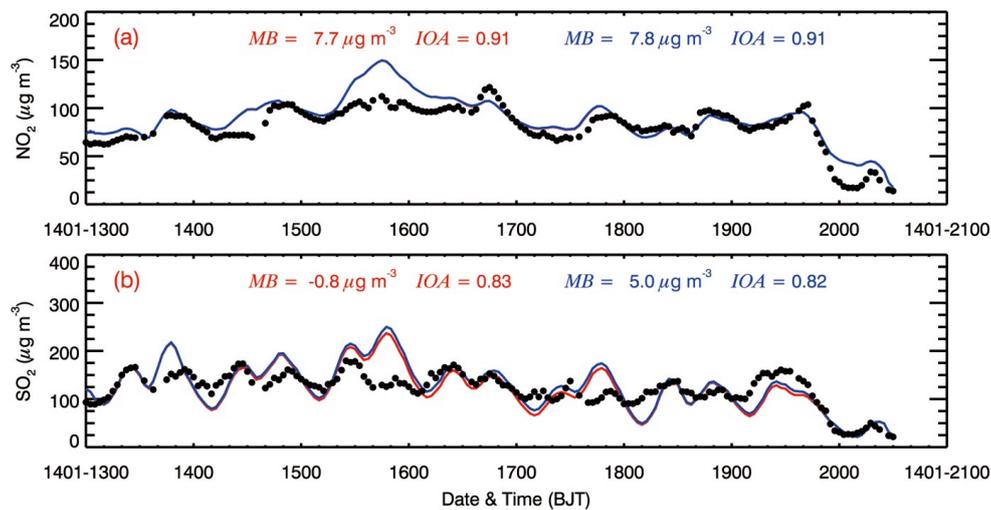
743 represent year, month, day and hour (YYMM-DDHH) or day and hour (DDHH). For example, 1312-

744 1600 represents 00 BJT on 16 December 2013.

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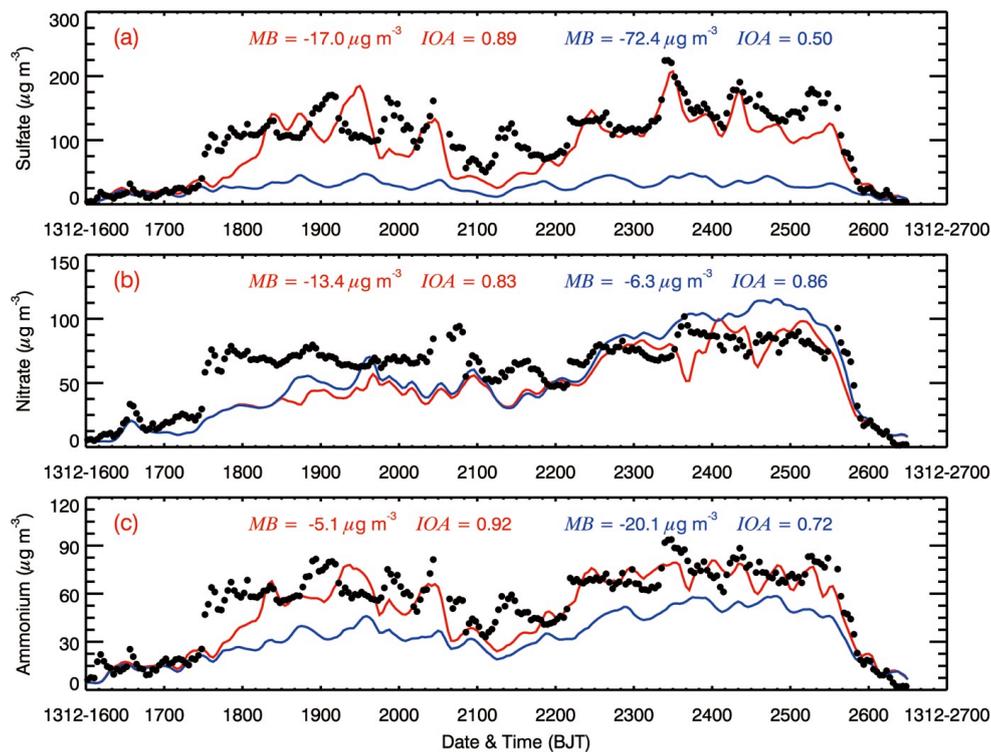
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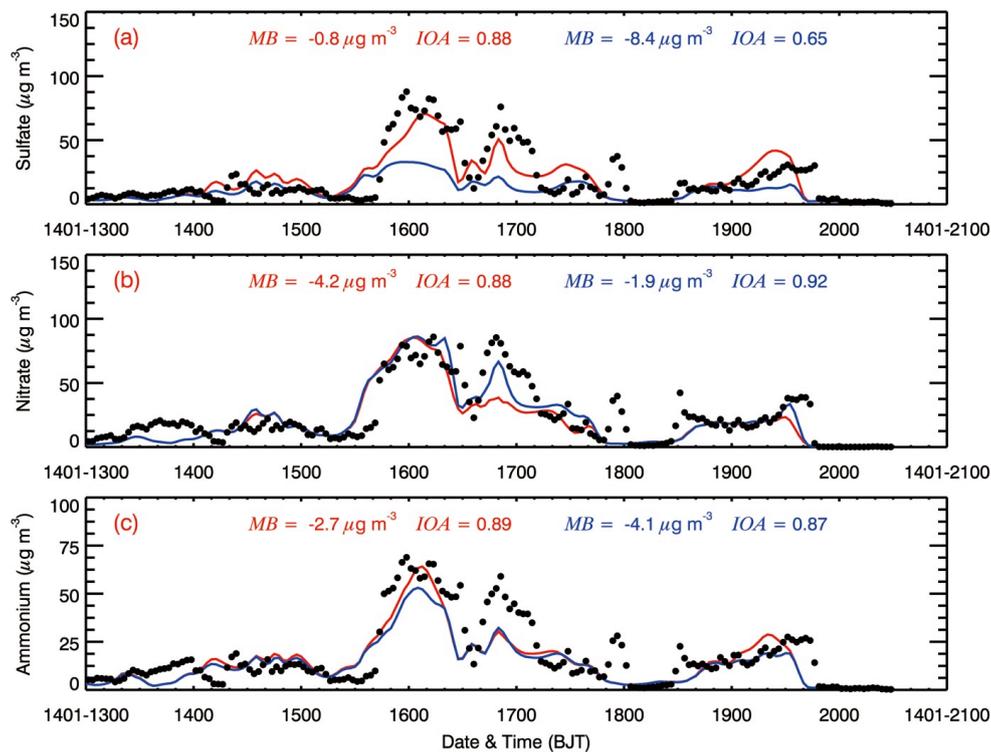
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Figure 10 Same as Figure 9, but in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014.



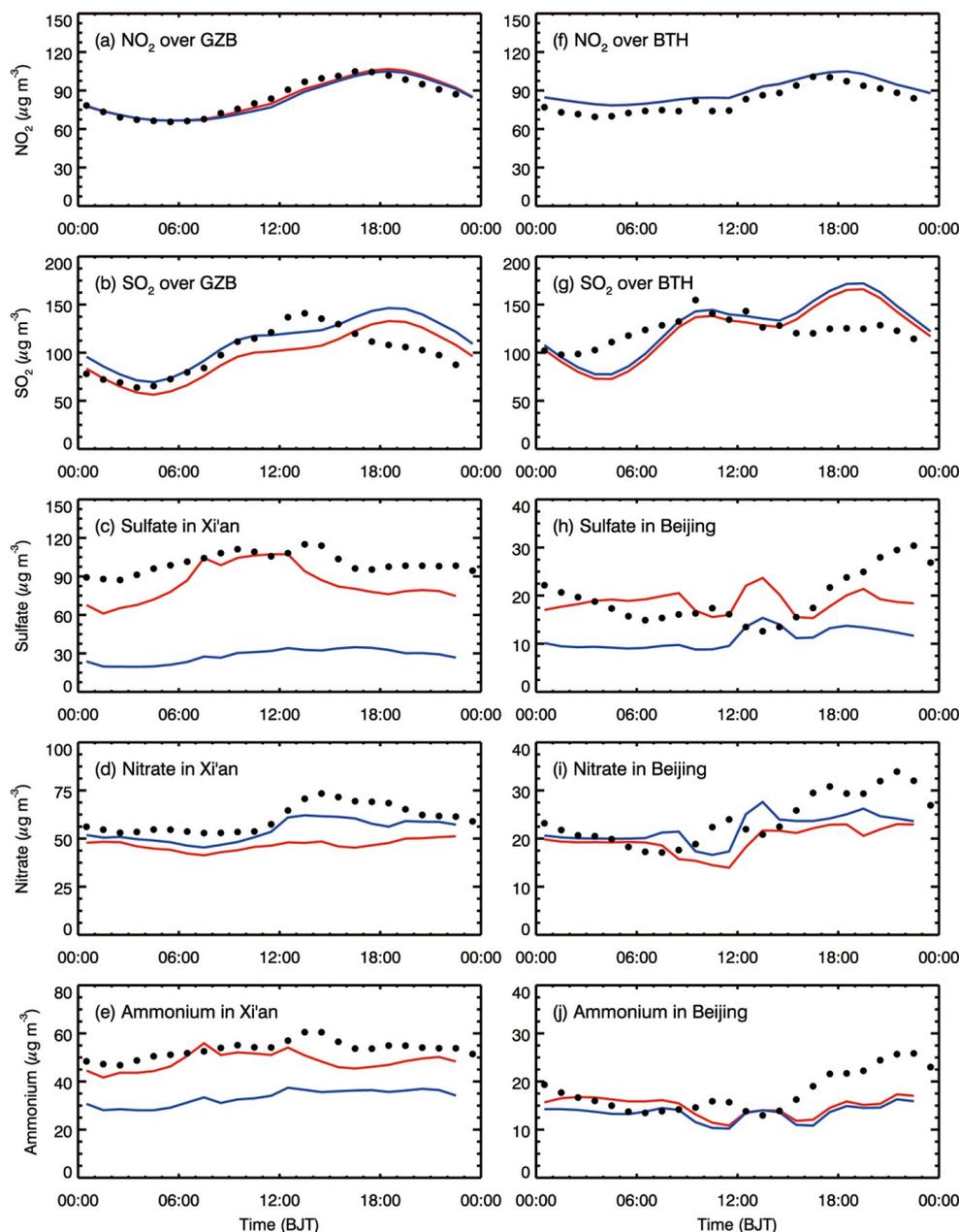
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Figure 11 Comparison of measured and simulated diurnal profiles of inorganic aerosols of (a) sulfate, (b) nitrate, and (c) ammonium in Xi'an from 16 to 27 December 2013. The black dots represent the observations, and the solid red and blue lines denote the simulations in the E-case and B-case, respectively.



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Figure 12 Same as Figure 11, but in Beijing from 13 to 21 January 2014.

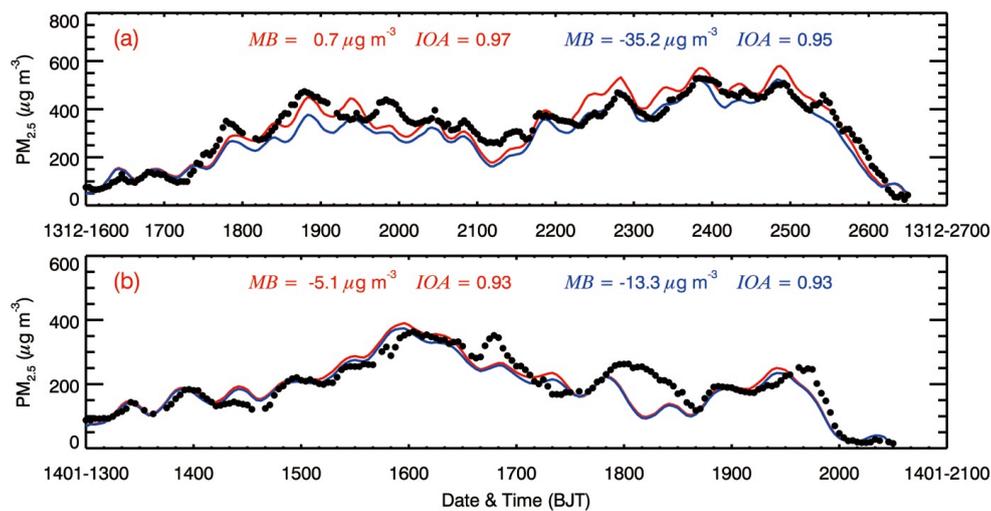


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Figure 13 Observed and simulated diurnal cycles of mass concentrations of NO_2 and SO_2 averaged over GZB and BTH and the sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium aerosols in Xi'an and Beijing during the simulated episodes.



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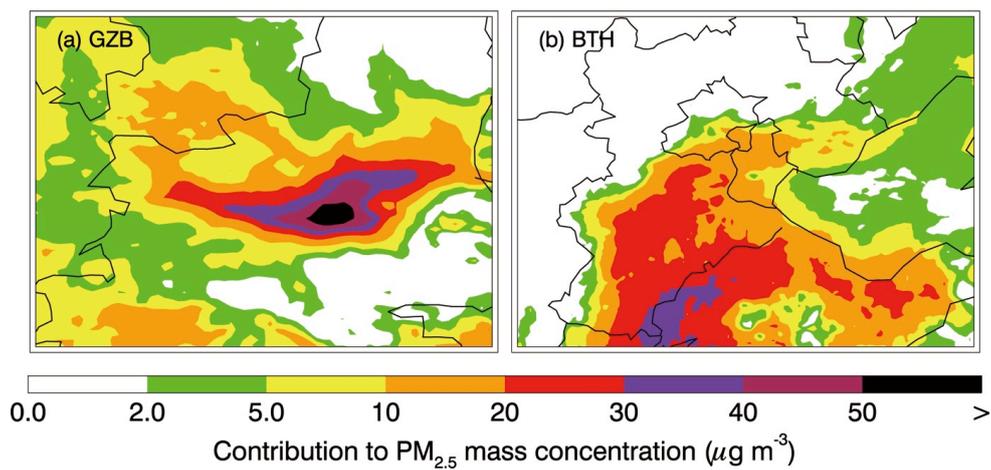
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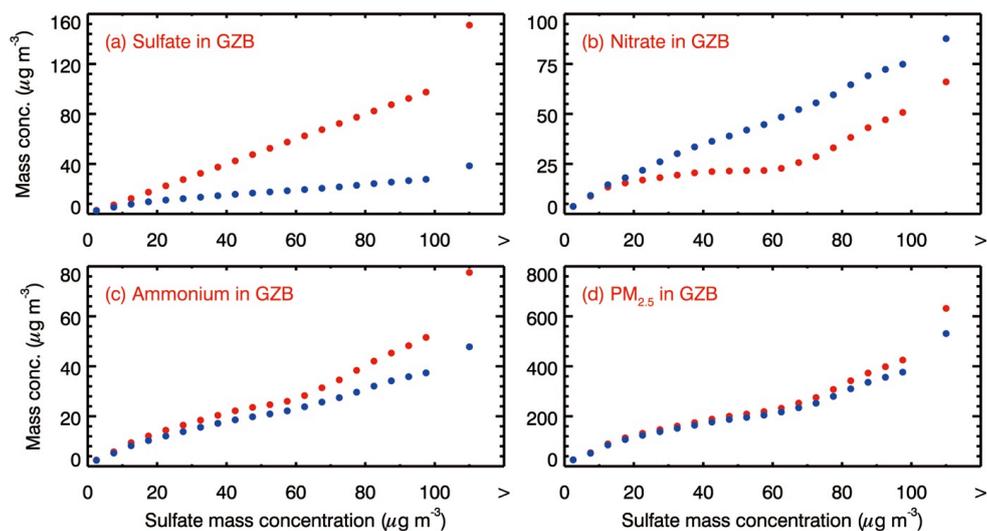
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Figure 14 Comparison of measured and predicted diurnal profiles of near-surface hourly $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration averaged over all ambient monitoring stations (a) in GZB from 16 to 27 December 2013 and (b) in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014. The black dots represent the observations, and the solid red and blue lines are the simulations in the E-case and B-case, respectively.



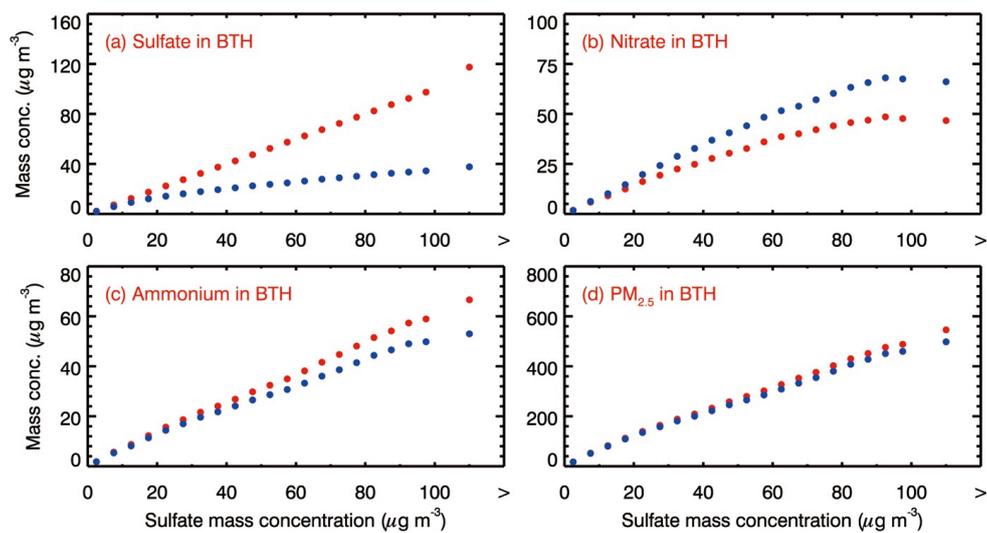
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Figure 15 Distribution of the average near-surface $PM_{2.5}$ contribution due to the SO_2 heterogeneous reactions in GZB and BTH during the simulated episodes.



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Figure 16 Average (a) sulfate, (b) nitrate, (c) ammonium, and (d) $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentrations in GZB during the simulation period as a function of the sulfate mass concentration in the E-case. The red and blue dots represent average mass concentrations in the E-case and B-case, respectively.



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Figure 17 Same as Figure 16, but in BTH from 13 to 21 January 2014.